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THE VICTORIAN ERA OF BRITISH EXPANSION: II. THE COLONIES AND INDIA.

BY ALLEYNE IRELAND.

WITH its ever-changing boundaries, the British Empire is by no means an easy subject for precise statistical treatment. Many territories, such as Tangier, Java, and Heligoland, have been acquired only to be relinquished. On the other hand, new possessions are continually being added to the Empire, and the boundaries of the older dependencies are at times extended, either by the further absorption of territory, as in the case of South Africa, or by the spread of population in countries, like Australia, where at first mere coast settlements existed. Again, as in India, and, more recently, in West Africa, areas under the control of chartered companies are taken over by the Crown; and, finally, we have to consider the uncertain field of protectorates. As a matter of classification, some of these protectorates may properly be considered as parts of the British Empire; others cannot be so regarded. For instance, in Africa the Bechuanaland Protectorate and the Territories of the British South Africa Company and of the British Imperial East Africa Company are, for all practical purposes, British possessions in the same sense as are Cape Colony and Natal; but Egypt, which is in fact, if not in name, a British protectorate, is never referred to as part of the Empire; whilst Zanzibar, though still an independent kingdom, has a British prime minister and a British consul-general who really control the government.

In the following pages I propose to adopt, for the sake of uniformity, the classification of the British "Colonial Office List," as far as dependencies outside the Indian Empire are concerned.

When Queen Victoria came to the throne in 1837, the territory subject to her authority, excluding protectorates and the

provinces of the East India Company, was distributed as follows:

BRITISH COLONIAL EMPIRE IN 1837.

	Square miles.	Population.
In Europe	120	127,000
In Asia	26,430	1,110,000
In Africa*	200,800	1,600,000
In North America	3,800,000	1,400,000
In South America	124,000	110,000
In West Indies	12,000	700,000
In Australasia†	2,972,000	180,000
Total	7,135,350	5,227,000

A general view of the present condition of the British Colonies and India may be gained from the following table, the corresponding figures for the United States being given as a standard of comparison:—

BRITISH COLONIAL EMPIRE IN 1900.
(The pound sterling is the unit in the money columns.)

Dependencies in—	Area in sq.miles.	Population. Census 1891.	Public expenditure, 1899.	Value imports plus exports, 1899.	Tonnage of shipping entered and cleared, 1899.
		In thousands			
India‡	964,993	221,000	97,465	213,348	9,115
Asia	123,981	4,666	3,666	70,851	34,000
Africa§	2,514,896	4,337	9,500	57,368	13,178
Australasia	3,174,641	3,973	31,900	162,288	23,289
North America	3,814,000	5,000	9,073	69,337	15,064
S. and Cent. America	123,000	310	592	3,933	1,182
West Indies	12,000	1,352	1,970	12,971	9,155
Europe‖	3,702	406	518	No returns.	15,916
Total	10,731,213	241,044	154,684	590,096	120,899
United States¶	3,616,484	65,000	140,000	384,834	44,177

From 1837 up to the present time, the chief additions to the territory of the British Empire have been, in Asia, 1839, Aden by conquest; 1842, Hongkong, by conquest and cession; 1846, Labuan, by cession; 1857, Perim, by conquest; 1858, the government of India passed to the Crown; 1874-1888, protectorate established over the Malay States; 1886, Upper Burmah, by conquest; 1888, protectorate established over Sarawak and British North Borneo: in Africa, 1868, Basutoland, annexed at request of the natives, who wished to be protected against the armed in-

* Exclusive of the West African colonies, which had no defined boundaries and were merely small coast settlements; but including Mauritius, the Seychelles and St. Helena.

† This includes the whole of the Australian continent; for, although the occupied area on the continent has increased, the political sphere remains the same.

‡ Exclusive of the Native States under British protection, which have an area of 595,167 square miles and a population of 31,865,992.

§ Exclusive of Egypt, the Orange River Colony, and the Transvaal.

‖ Including Cyprus, which is only provisionally under British control by the terms of a convention with Turkey signed in 1878.

¶ The area and population of the United States are taken as for 1891, so that the figures may refer to the same period as the Colonial censuses of that year, the latest in which a Colonial census has been taken.

cursions of the Boers; 1885-1896, protectorate established over the territories of the British South Africa Company, the British Imperial East Africa Company, and over British Central Africa; 1900, the territories of the Niger Company taken over by the Crown; 1901, the Transvaal, sovereignty, which had been conditionally relinquished in 1881, resumed by the Crown; Orange River Colony, by conquest: in Australasia, 1840, New Zealand, by cession; 1874, Fiji, by cession; 1888, British New Guinea, annexed peaceably.

As I pointed out in the first part of this article, the imperialistic idea in England is of recent growth, certainly not older than the eighties. It is, however, a matter of great importance that we should observe the development of British Colonial policy during the reign of Victoria, as apart from the imperialistic sentiment; and we shall note a very interesting circumstance—namely, that, although until within recent years the Colonies were looked upon as so many burdens, and notwithstanding a general feeling, as late as 1886, that the more important Colonies were soon to become independent, successive governments have, without any hope of appealing to the admiration of the electors or even of arousing their interest, persistently improved the government of the Colonies, in one direction by Civil Service reform, and in another by the granting of representative institutions and responsible self-government wherever the conditions would permit.

Nor does this appear less remarkable if we reflect that, of some forty Secretaries who have administered the affairs of the British Colonial Empire during the past century, the greater number have taken no interest whatever in the ultimate destiny of the dependencies under their care, and that many of them entered the Colonial Office absolutely ignorant of colonial questions, and left it in much the same condition of mind. It becomes, then, a matter of some interest to inquire into the causes of the continual efforts of the Colonial Office to improve the government of the British Colonies, and to seek some broad principle which may account for the gradual enlightenment of British Colonial policy during Victoria's reign.

Unfortunately, in setting out to pursue this line of thought, we find ourselves on highly speculative ground. It is by no means a difficult task to describe the political condition of England under Elizabeth; to portray the abnormal license of the

Court under the Stuarts, and the equally abnormal severity of the Cromwellian period; to moralize about the intolerable corruption of Parliament at the time of Walpole; and to contrast with all this the integrity of public life in England to-day, the honesty of elections, and the remarkable purity of the Court under Victoria. But changes in national life and character, though easily described, are extremely difficult to account for, not because the student finds any lack of sufficient causes, but because many of these causes would not have become operative but for other circumstances purely accidental in their nature.

Of course, a philosophy of history cannot be based on a consideration of what would have happened if something which did happen had not happened; but it is very necessary to realize that the moment of great national changes is often determined by the occurrence of comparatively unimportant events. Holding this limitation strictly in view, an interdependence may be suggested between Colonial reform and internal reform in England.

The corruption in public life in England during the eighteenth century was unequalled during any period in English history; and its very excess insured the change which was observable in the early years of the nineteenth century. It is not difficult to account for this corruption, or for the growth of a public sentiment which demanded a higher standard of official integrity for British statesmen. The eighteenth century was for England a century of war. Between 1702 and 1815 England was fighting, at one time or another, France, Spain, Holland, the American Colonies, and the United States. Taken together, these wars filled about sixty years. But, in addition to being a century of war, the eighteenth century was, until near its close, a period of general prosperity. The revolution of 1688 roughly marked the commencement of a hundred years of steady growth in English industry and commerce. In almost every discussion of the poor rates during that period, there was one point on which every one was agreed—that, if an able-bodied man needed relief, it was because he was lazy, and not because there was no work to be had.

Now, if we disregard the questions, how far the wars produced the good times—and there were circumstances in the eighteenth century wars which greatly favored British commerce—and to what extent the good times were responsible for the ready voting of war supplies, and thus indirectly for the wars themselves, we

cannot fail to see that the coincidence of these two conditions of war and prosperity exerted a most pernicious influence on the character of British statesmanship.

In time of war, the mass of people, however evil may be the political conditions of the day, demand victories above all else; reform may wait. But if a faint cry for reform should be raised, it is always met on the part of those in power by the same argument: "First let us deal with our enemies, then all the reform you please." So the day passes; and, when the victories come, reform is staved off by an argument as false and ridiculous as the "under-dog" argument, and as deeply rooted in human nature. "How ungrateful," it is said, "to inquire so scrupulously into the conduct of a ministry which piloted the ship of state triumphantly through the storms of a foreign war!" So the moment passes again. And when, in addition to vanquished foes and new possessions, the party in power can point to a condition of prosperity amongst all classes, the public mind easily accepts the idea that administrative affairs cannot really be in such a bad state, after all, and that it is best to let well alone.

During the greater part of the eighteenth century all the conditions existed which made corruption at once easy and safe; but towards the end of the century, when, as Lord Macaulay has said, "anything short of direct embezzlement of the public money was considered as quite fair in public men," conditions began to change. A succession of bad crops caused a flow of population to the towns; but there machinery, which had at first merely swelled the output of woollen and cotton cloth, had already begun to liberate a large number of hands for other work, with the result that, in every part of the country, the number of unemployed rapidly increased. Between 1750 and 1818 the charge for poor relief in England increased from £619,000 to £8,000,000. A large part of the population became discontented, ricks were burned, machinery was destroyed by rioters, and the people began to ask whether, having attributed the good times to the government, they were not justified in tracing the evil times upon which they had fallen to the same source.

Whilst machinery was revolutionizing the industry of the country and depriving the ministers of the "full dinner-pail" argument, changes were taking place in other directions. With the fall of Napoleon in 1815, England entered on the longest period

of peace which it had been her lot to enjoy since the Norman conquest. She entered it with a disturbed spirit. Conquests there had been in plenty. France had been beaten by sea and by land; India and Canada were saved. But the American Colonies had revolted and achieved their independence, the United States had declared war against England in 1812, and had not been beaten, whilst at home the greatest distress prevailed amongst the laboring classes. No longer concerned in watching Europe, the people of England now turned their attention to home affairs, with the result that within a period of forty years the political system of the country was reorganized and its commercial policy entirely changed. But it happened that during the period when the reform movement in England was gradually changing the type of English statesmanship and elevating the moral tone of public life, the government was continually confronted with Colonial problems, the discussion of which naturally followed the line of the prevailing political and economic doctrine.

The period between 1776, the year of the American Declaration of Independence and of the publication of Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations," and 1839, the year of the Durham Report, which formulated an enlightened system of Colonial rule, was filled with events in the field of home and Colonial affairs which reacted one upon another in such a way as to give the great political and economic issues of the time a stage as broad as the British Empire, and to make every Briton in the remotest Colony vitally interested in the outcome. On the one hand, we see the revolt of the American Colonies, followed by the trial of Warren Hastings, in 1778, by the American War of 1812, by the Abolition of Slavery in 1834, and by the Canadian Rebellion of 1837; and, on the other hand, as if to supply the wisdom which these events showed to be lacking in the councils of the nation, we find that Adam Smith is but the leader of that group of writers which included Malthus, Ricardo, Bentham and James Mill.

We come now to the years immediately preceding and following Victoria's accession; and, if I have devoted a good deal of time to the discussion of affairs which do not fall strictly within the limits of my title, it is because I wished to emphasize the fact that the Queen's accession marked the commencement of a new epoch, as well as the beginning of a new reign.

In 1826, a Select Committee of the House of Commons was

appointed to inquire into the expediency of encouraging emigration from the United Kingdom. This committee reported that the redundancy of population in the United Kingdom had reduced part of the people to a great degree of destitution and misery; that it had also had the effect of deteriorating the general condition of the laboring classes; and that the industry and safety of the British Colonies would be materially encouraged and preserved by the reception of this surplus population. It is interesting to note that the committee closes its statement of the facts by saying that "the national wealth will be increased by the change, *if the Colonies are to be considered as integral parts of the nation at large.*" The outcome of this and of subsequent inquiries was that Commissioners of Emigration were appointed by the government, and serious attention was directed to the development of the Colonies by means of the surplus population of the United Kingdom. The Emigration Commissioners published reports relating to the progress of emigration, and pamphlets in which the conditions of the various Colonies were described, and the prospects of successful emigration were discussed. The following table shows the influence of the systematic work of the Emigration Commissioners:

EMIGRATION FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM TO THE BRITISH COLONIES.

	To the North American Colonies.	To the Australasian Colonies.
1825	8,741	485
1830	30,574	1,242
1840	32,293	15,850

The number of emigrants fluctuated from year to year in sympathy with the general conditions at home and in the Colonies. Thus, the Irish famine of 1847 sent 109,680 people to the North American Colonies, though the average number during the previous four years had been only 30,000; and the discovery of gold in Australia increased the emigration to those colonies from 16,037 in 1850 to 87,881 in 1852. During the first half of the nineteenth century more than a million emigrants left England for the British Colonies in America and Australasia; and it is during these early years of emigration to the Colonies that we find the first attempt in England towards the formulation of a scientific theory of colonization.

The name most intimately associated with this movement is that of Edward Gibbon Wakefield. He was born in 1796, and his early training and education fell, therefore, in the time when

the distressed condition of the laboring population called most loudly for remedial measures

Through the influence of Wakefield, the National Colonization Society was founded in 1830, with the object of drawing the attention of the Government to the need of Colonial reform and of inducing the Colonial Office to apply the principles embodied in the Wakefield system. The opinions and theories known to students as the Wakefield system may be briefly summarized. Starting from the axiom that new countries cannot be developed without a labor supply, Wakefield proceeded to inquire into the causes which limited the labor supply in the British non-tropical Colonies. A large number of emigrants went out each year, and still the Colonies made very little progress. The reason was not far to seek. Under the system then in vogue of giving free grants of land to all indiscriminately, the government removed at once the only motive which would cause a laborer to hire out his service. As soon as they landed in a Colony, the newcomers, irrespective of their previous condition of life, proceeded to occupy land, so that the capitalist found himself with land and no labor, and the laborer was equally unfortunate in the possession of land without capital. Thus things were at a standstill; the labor was there, but it would not hire itself to the capital; the capital was there, but it could not find employment. Wakefield proposed to remedy this state of things by stopping all free grants of land, by exacting a cash payment for every acre alienated from the Crown, and by a tax on the actual rent of all land owned by private individuals. The money thus accumulated should be used as a fund for the conveyance of British laborers to the Colonies free of cost.

In 1836 a Select Committee of the House of Commons inquired into the whole question of Crown Lands in the Colonies, and Wakefield was the most important witness, his examination lasting four days, and covering replies to 562 questions put by members of the Committee. The Report of the Committee amounted to a recommendation that the Wakefield system should be adopted in the Colonies, and legislation followed, from time to time, giving effect if not to all the details, at least to the general principles advocated by Wakefield.

The Crown Lands question, though of great importance, was soon overshadowed by a much broader issue—in which again we

find Wakefield a strong, though, on this occasion, a silent power —the question of what was to be the form of government in the British non-tropical Colonies. The answer to this question was determined by the Canadian Rebellion of 1837, and by Lord Durham's Report on Canadian affairs. Of this report it has been said: "Wakefield thought it, Buller wrote it, Durham signed it." However that may be, the report is one of the most important of the many valuable and interesting documents which have been called into existence by England's Colonial difficulties. From the presentation of this report, we may date the acceptance by England of the principle of responsible self-government for all British Colonies in which white men can live and thrive.

I cannot better set forth the wise statesmanship of the Report than by quoting the words used by its author:

"It is not by weakening but by strengthening the influence of the people on its Government; by confining within much narrower bounds than those hitherto allotted to it, and not by extending the interference of the Imperial authorities in the details of colonial affairs, that I believe that harmony is to be restored. . . . . I know not in what respect it can be desirable that we should interfere in their internal legislation, in matters which do not affect their relations with the mother country. . . . . The colonists may not always know what laws are best for them, or which of their countrymen are the fittest for conducting their affairs; but at least they have a greater interest in coming to a right judgment on these points, and will take greater pains to do so, than those whose welfare is very remotely and slightly affected by the good or bad legislation of these portions of the Empire. If the colonists make bad laws, and select improper persons to conduct their affairs, they will generally be the only, and always the greatest, sufferers; and, like the people of other countries, they must bear the ills which they bring on themselves, until they choose to apply the remedy. . . . . With respect to every one of those plans which propose to make the English minority an electoral majority, by means of new and strange modes of voting or unfair divisions of the country, I shall only say that, if the Canadians are to be deprived of representative government, it would be better to do it in a straightforward way than to attempt to establish a permanent system of government on the basis of what all mankind would regard as mere electoral frauds. It is not in North America that men can be cheated by an unreal semblance of representative government, or persuaded that they are out-voted, when, in fact, they are disfranchised."

Space will not permit an extended examination of the Durham Report. The extracts quoted above are sufficient to give us a true apprehension of the noble spirit of liberty and equality which animates the whole document.

The liberal theories advanced by Lord Durham were accepted by the British people; and from time to time self-government, on the basis of wide parliamentary representation, a responsible ministry, and entire freedom of internal legislation, was granted to the larger Colonies. The progress of this movement may be observed by reference to the following table:

GRANT OF RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT, THAT IS THE CONDUCT OF THE EXECUTIVE GOVERNMENT BY THE ADVICE OF MINISTERS RESPONSIBLE TO THE LOCAL PARLIAMENT.

1841. Colony of Canada.
1848. Nova Scotia.
New Brunswick.
1854. Victoria.
New South Wales.
1855. South Australia.
Tasmania.
Newfoundland.
1856. New Zealand.
1859. Queensland.
1867. Dominion of Canada.
1872. Cape of Good Hope.
1890. Western Australia.
1893. Natal.
1900. Commonwealth of Australia.

There remain two important subjects relating to Colonial reform, which for their adequate presentation require far more space than is at my disposal, the commercial policy of England towards her Colonies, and Colonial Civil Service reform.

The entire freedom of the British Colonies to decide on their own trade policy, even if it should take the form of an import duty on British goods, is the result of the triumph of free trade in England. The move in the direction of free trade may be said to have commenced in 1820, when, as a result of petitions from the merchants of London and Edinburgh, a Select Committee of the House of Commons considered "the means of maintaining and improving the foreign trade of the country.," and reported:

"That the means of attaining the object to which their consideration has been directed by order of the House, consisted less in affording additional legislative protection or encouragement to the commerce of the United Kingdom with foreign states, than in relieving it from a variety of restrictions which the policy of a former period imposed on it; and which, whether expedient or otherwise at the time when they were enacted, having ceased to be necessary for the purposes which originally recommended them, tend to embarrass its operations, and impede its extension and prosperity."

The fight for free trade was, considering the tremendous changes involved in its adoption, shorter than might have been expected, occupying just thirty years. In 1820 some fifteen hundred Acts of Parliament were in force regulating the commerce of the British Empire; but gradually barrier after barrier was removed, and with the repeal of the Navigation Laws and of the

Corn Laws, in 1849, England may be said to have definitely entered the era of free trade.

The grant of authority to determine for themselves the commercial policy best suited to their circumstances has not been confined to the great self-governing Colonies; even in the small tropical Colonies which enjoy some degree of representative government the tariff is fixed by the popular branch of the Legislature.

The subject of Civil Service reform in the Colonies is more intimately connected with the history of British administration in India than with the history of the other parts of the Empire, for since the grant of responsible government to the great non-tropical Colonies the Civil Service of those countries has been in the hands of the local legislatures, and in the tropical Colonies, excepting only Ceylon and the Possessions in Further India, the Civil Service, though of a very high standard, is not completely organized on any uniform plan of recruiting. Until 1858 the Administration of India was in the hands of the East India Company, though controlled to a considerable extent from 1813 onward by the Imperial Parliament. The English East India Company, which was incorporated on the last day of the sixteenth century, passed through three stages of existence and to these stages corresponded three methods of selecting the officials of the Company. In the first stage, which lasted roughly for a hundred and fifty years, the Company was a commercial corporation enjoying the monopoly of the Eastern trade, and its territorial possessions in the East were bounded by the walls of the factories. As was natural, the servants of the Company were, during this period, selected merely for their efficiency as commercial agents. The second stage, which covered the period from 1750 to 1813, was one of territorial acquisition; and the Company, in addition to the business of trade, was called on to wage wars by sea and land, and to negotiate treaties with the Native Princes of India. During this period a keen competition arose in England for positions under the Company; and as mere clerks were now no longer capable of conducting the complicated affairs of the Indian territories, appointments were given to men of a different stamp. At first, the new quasi-diplomatic posts were conferred on a basis of mere favoritism, in some instances with the object of providing for needy relatives, in others in order to oblige some

person high in authority in England, who, as occasion offered, might be expected to give a *quid pro quo*. The sale of appointments became one of the perquisites of the directors of the Company, and gross abuses were brought to light, a Select Committee of the House of Commons sitting as late as 1809 to inquire into the corrupt practices in this direction.

In 1813, the company entered the third and last stage of its career. The Indian monopoly was abolished and all that was left to the company was its administrative functions. With this change, the need of the man of commerce vanished and the call was for trained civil servants. The reform which these changes made imperative had already begun. In 1802, the Marquis Wellesley, at that time Governor-General of India, had issued a Minute drawing attention to the necessity for special training for the Company's servants, and had proposed the erection of a college for that purpose in India. He even went so far as to establish such an institution; but the directors of the Company abandoned the scheme. But out of the suggestions of the Marquis of Wellesley came the action of the East India Company in founding, in 1806, the college for the training of East Indian officials at Haileybury, near London. Here was first introduced the principle of appointment by competitive examination. The pupils were instructed in all those subjects which go to make up a liberal education, and in addition were taught the languages and the laws of the East.

With the demise of the company in 1857, the college at Haileybury was abandoned as a training school for East Indian officials, and the new order of things, open competitive examinations, was thereafter established. The whole subject of Indian Civil Service was inquired into in 1854 by a Commission of which Lord Macaulay was Chairman, and Benjamin Jowett a member. The Report of this Commission laid down elaborate rules for the selection and appointment of Indian officials; and, in the main, the principles there advocated are still followed to-day. The system of Civil Service throughout the British Empire has of course developed and grown as the Empire has expanded. The cardinal principles of that service appear to be these—that any man capable of passing the required examinations, who is of a respectable character, may be appointed, that no man thus appointed may be dismissed except for just cause shown, that no

man shall be permitted to remain in the service after he has shown himself unfit to retain his post, that a sufficient salary shall attach to each position, and that a pension shall follow long service.

I have gone very briefly over the two main fields of Colonial reform—the form of government and the nature of the Civil Service; and I must now turn to the physical expansion of the Empire.

BRITISH COLONIES AND INDIA. POPULATION.

	(in thousands.) 1850.	1871.	1881.	1891.
India	171,859	191,018	198,790	221,000
Asiatic Colonies	1,789	3,173	3,731	4,666
African Colonies	613	1,362	1,818	4,337
Australasian Colonies	466	1,924	2,869	3,973
North American Colonies	2,482	3,844	4,517	5,000
S. and Cent. Amer. Colonies.	127	219	279	310
West Indian Colonies	793	1,063	1,213	1,352
European Colonies	138	160	168	406
Total	178,267	202,763	213,385	241,044

I have not brought the figures relating to the population of the Colonies and India down later than 1891, the year of the last census; for, although estimates are available for last year, the figures would be liable to be considerably changed by the results of the census which is now being carried on. The increase in population between 1850 and 1891 is due to two causes—increase in the territory included under the different heads and natural growth of the population; but, as each group, with the exception of the American and West Indian Colonies, has received an increase of territory, little beyond the mere fact of growth can be ascertained from the above table. In Australasia alone has the increase of territory since 1850 been of very slight importance, about ninety-eight thousand square miles; and there we find a growth of population, almost entirely of European stock, from four hundred thousand to four millions. In other words, the single city of Melbourne contains more people to-day than did the whole of Australasia in 1860.

I pass now to the commerce of the British Colonies and India, dealing first with the value of the total imports and the proportion bought in each group of Colonies from the mother country. I may say that the percentages differ to a considerable extent from those given in my "Tropical Colonization," owing to the fact that the units, "British Colonies and India," as used in this article, do not include the European Colonies and Hongkong, and because the cost of freight and insurance is here included;

but, although the percentages are higher, the trend of the trade is in the same direction, and the same arguments are deducible from these figures as from those given in my book:

BRITISH COLONIES AND INDIA. VALUE OF IMPORTS.
(in thousands of pounds sterling.)

	1850.	1870.	1890.	1899.
India	13,696	46,882	93,909	96,278
Per cent. from United Kingdom	55.52	64.75	67.57	65.43*
Asiatic Colonies	2,549	16,801	31,957	38,176
Per cent. from United Kingdom	24.88	27.52	18.84	14.93
African Colonies	1,742	4,043	16,218	29,210
Per cent. from United Kingdom	80.99	75.01	81.05	69.40
Australasian Colonies	4,379	28,880	68,270	72,640
Per cent. from United Kingdom	63.34	48.82	41.25	36.83
North American Colonies	6,482	17,205	26,672	35,136
Per cent. from United Kingdom	43.70	52.34	35.47	23.10
South and Central American Colonies	993	2,101	2,236	1,604
Per cent. from United Kingdom	64.55	53.68	59.12	54.80
West Indian Colonies	3.280	4,647	6,846	6,711
Per cent. from United Kingdom	55.48	44.50	45.58	40.55
Total†	33,121	120,559	246,108	279,755
Per cent. from United Kingdom	53.48	53.34	50.64	45.55

The foregoing table presents many points of interest. To take, first, the growth of the imports into the whole Colonial Empire and into each group, we find, roughly, that the value of imports increased, from 1850 to 1899, in the Australasian Colonies to 16½ times the earlier figure; in the African Colonies to 16 times; in the Asiatic Colonies to 15 times; in the Colonies and India to 8 1-3 times; in India to 7 times; in the North American Colonies to 5½ times; in the West Indian Colonies to 2 times, and in the South and Central American Colonies to 1 2-3 times. But we must remember that the trade of the African, Australasian and Asiatic Colonies was almost entirely undeveloped in 1850, and that the Canadian trade was very considerable in bulk. If we take the increase or decrease between 1890 and 1899 the groups are arranged very differently.

INCREASE OR DECREASE IN VALUE OF IMPORTS, 1890-1899.

African Colonies, increase of	80.10 per cent.
North American Colonies, increase of	31.72 " "
Asiatic Colonies, increase of	19.46 " "
The Colonies and India, increase of	13.67 " "
Australasian Colonies, increase of	6.40 " "
India, increase of	2.52 " "
West Indian Colonies, decrease of	2.00 " "
South and Central American Colonies, decrease of	28.26 " "

The only point that needs elucidation in the above table is the abnormal increase in the imports into the African Colonies. A certain portion of this increase, say 20 per cent. of it, should be allowed for the value of war material imported into the South African Colonies in 1899.

* Estimate, returns not complete.
† Exclusive of Hong Kong, Gibraltar, Malta and Cyprus. The imports from the United Kingdom are calculated on the basis of value at the port of arrival—that is, practically, with freight and insurance added.

I pass now to a consideration of the origin of the imports of the Colonies and India. It will be seen that in every group, with the exception of India (and on an estimated figure we can hardly set India down as an exception), the percentage of imports from the United Kingdom has fallen off, indicating the establishment of the commercial independence of the British Colonies. The falling off in the percentage of imports from the United Kingdom has been greatest in Australasia and in the North American Colonies—from 63.34 per cent. to 36.83 per cent. in the former and from 43.70 per cent. to 23.10 per cent. in the latter.

It is interesting to observe that in both cases the United States and Germany are the countries which have secured the bulk of the trade which England has lost. The exact course of the change may be observed from the following figures:

	Imports into Australian Colonies.		Imports into Canada & Newfoundland.	
	1871.	1899.	1871.	1899.
From United States.....	£600,000	£5,216,000	£7,794,000	£19,507,000
From Germany*	.....	2,240,000	221,000	1,519,000
From United Kingdom....	12,066,000	26,758,000	10,900,000	8,012,000

In the following table the value of total exports from the Colonies and India and the proportion sent to the United Kingdom are exhibited:

BRITISH COLONIES AND INDIA—VALUE OF EXPORTS.
(In thousands of pounds sterling.)

	1850.	1870.	1890.	1899.
India	18,283	53,513	102,350	117,070
Per cent. to United Kingdom.....	39.07	51.94	32.83	†30.75
Asiatic Colonies	2,240	14,660	27,983	32,675
Per cent. to United Kingdom.....	65.62	35.40	24.77	26.98
African Colonies	1,701	4,401	13,115	28,158
Per cent. to United Kingdom.....	84.95	67.64	87.18	87.94
Australasian Colonies	4,648	28,421	65,184	89,648
Per cent. to United Kingdom.....	56.36	46.94	43.26	40.14
North American Colonies	5,044	16,662	21,288	34,201
Per cent. to United Kingdom.....	42.42	29.94	48.16	60.40
South and Central Am. Colonies.....	1,076	2,555	2,564	2,329
Per cent. to United Kingdom.....	90.05	57.41	48.43	54.83
West Indian Colonies.....	3,097	4,991	6,543	6,260
Per cent. to United Kingdom.....	81.91	75.09	30.41	26.15
‡Total.....	36,089	125,203	239,027	310,341
Per cent. to United Kingdom.....	50.77	47.53	39.18	41.61

Thus it appears that in the period 1850-1899, the value of exports increased in the Australasian colonies to 19 times the earlier figure; in the Asiatic colonies to 14½ times; in the African colonies to 14½ times; in the Colonies and India to 8 2-3 times; in the North American Colonies to 6¾ times; in India to 6½ times;

*Imports into Australian Colonies for 1871 too small to be noted in returns.
†Estimate; returns not complete.
‡Exclusive of Hong Kong, Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus.

in the South and Central American colonies to 2¼ times, and in the West Indian Colonies to 2 times.

Again, rearranging the groups according to their growth of exports during the past decade, we get:

INCREASE OR DECREASE IN VALUE OF EXPORTS, 1890-1899.

African Colonies, increased by	115.00 %
North American Colonies, increased by	60.65 %
Australasian Colonies, increased by	37.53 %
The Colonies and India, increased by	29.83 %
Asiatic Colonies, increased by	16.77 %
India, increased by	14.38 %
West Indian Colonies, decreased by	4.32 %
South and Central American Colonies, decreased by	9.16 %

In regard to the direction of the colonial exports, it is to be observed that, as in the case of the imports, England secures a lesser proportion than she did fifty years ago. The groups showing the greatest falling off in the proportion of exports sent to the United Kingdom are the Asiatic colonies, which only send home 26.98 per cent. of their produce, where formerly they sent 65.62 per cent; the Australasian colonies, which now sell England 40.14 per cent. of their goods instead of 56.36 per cent.; the South and Central American colonies, whose percentage of exports has fallen from 90.05 to 54.83 per cent., and the West Indian Colonies, where the decrease is from 81.91 per cent. to 26.15 per cent.

The decrease in the proportion of exports from the Asiatic colonies to the United Kingdom is not caused by foreign competition for the products of those Colonies, but by a growth of trade between those Colonies and India. In the Australasian group, the United States and Germany are the countries which have taken over the trade represented by the falling off in the proportion of exports to England. This will be seen by the following table:

AUSTRALASIAN EXPORTS.

	1871.	1899.
To United States	£366,000	£3,061,000
Increase		736 %
To Germany (1885)	65,000	2,801,000
Increase		4,209 %
To United Kingdom	13,343,000	35,993,000
Increase		169 %

The most notable decrease, however, is in the West Indian group and in the South and Central American group. This decrease, from 81 per cent. to 26 per cent. in the former, and from 90 per cent. to 55 per cent. in the latter, represents the diversion of the sugar export to the United States, and the growth of the Jamaica fruit trade. Statistics are not available in the Colonial returns which would enable a comparison of the exports from the

British West Indies and the British Colonies in Central and South America to the United States in 1850 and in 1899; but we may arrive at the facts by examining the growth of imports into the United States from these colonies.

IMPORTS INTO UNITED STATES.

	1850.	1899.
From British West Indies	$997,000	$14,300,000
From British Guiana and British Honduras	287,000	3,700,000

It is interesting to note that, whilst the value of the imports into the British North American Colonies from the United Kingdom decreased in proportion between 1850 and 1899 from 43.70 per cent. of the whole to 23.10 per cent. of the whole, the value of exports to the United Kingdom has increased in proportion during the same period from 42.42 per cent. to 60.40 per cent. of the total value of exports.

The last phase of expansion which comes within our view is the growth of shipping in the Colonies and India. The figures relating to this aspect of the subject are given below:

BRITISH COLONIES AND INDIA. SHIPPING.
Tonnage of Shipping Entered and Cleared, Exclusive of Coasting Trade.
(Thousands of tons.)

	1850.	1870.	1890.	1899.
India	1,403	4,009	7,684	9,115
Per cent. British	....	86.70	88.02	85.44
Asiatic Colonies	1,108	6,189	24,332	33,992
Per cent. British	....	69.62	73.91	67.22
African Colonies	683	1,609	6,169	13,178
Per cent. British	....	76.19	83.43	83.17
Australasian Colonies	1,088	4,240	15,683	23,289
Per cent. British	....	92.26	87.63	85.78
North American Colonies	3,334	6,425	11,269	15,064
Per cent. British	....	77.92	54.84	66.90
South & Cent. Am. Colonies.	276	503	1,088	1,182
Per cent. British	....	....	53.75	52.28
West Indian Colonies	729	1,533	7,531	9,155
Per cent. British	....	65.36	76.61	74.72
European Colonies	1,648	5,939	21,124	15,916
Per cent. British	....	41.82	82.48	70.69
Total	10,269	30,447	94,880	120,891
Per cent. British	....	70.50	77.56	74.75

There is little in the above table which calls for comment. The slight falling off in British shipping in the Asiatic colonies and India is due largely to German and Japanese competition. It is worthy of note that, with a diminishing proportion of the Colonial commerce, the United Kingdom should have more than maintained her proportion of the carrying trade of the Colonies. The most remarkable increase of shipping has been in the Asiatic Colonies and Australasia, the tonnage entered and cleared in the former group having expanded more than thirty-fold since 1850, and in the latter more than twenty-fold.

ALLEYNE IRELAND.